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THE EDUCATIONIST.

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Editorial.

THE following hearty endorsement from one of the very best teachers in our State "makes us glad."

I am glad to see the Educationist *realizing* the *ideal* which called it into being. No teacher can read its pages and not receive benefit. It is already the "organ" of the *thinking* teachers of the State, and those who are destitute of the germ of progress have little use for it, as it is not on their plane.

WE publish this month for the benefit of school officers the "plan" adopted by the Superintendent of Marion county. Mr. Smith is a most energetic and faithful worker, and is sparing no pains to make his schools efficient. Will not some others send us an account of what they are doing? We shall be glad to publish anything that will tend to increase the usefulness and efficiency of the work of our School Superintendents.

THE State of Indiana is about to embark in a new educational enterprise. She has in the control of a Board of Trustees altogether nearly three-quarters of a million of funds for the endowment and construction of what is generally known in this country as an agricultural college, awkwardly named by an act of the Legislature, the Purdue University. It ought to be called a Farm School, or an Industrial School, to indicate its distinctive character; but the name is not of material consequence. The policy and character of the school are the points of interest. The buildings, consisting of a dormitory, boarding hall, and laboratory are nearly completed, and are the best of their kind, sufficient for the reasonable demands of the school for several years. It is the intention to open the school, or University as it is called, in April next. What sort of a school is this to be? It is the third institution of high grade attempted by the State to give free tuition to her youth. She has in full operation the State University at Bloomington and the Normal School at Terre Haute. The University contemplates a complete provision for a liberal education in any and all branches of learning and adapted to any profession. The Normal has a specific field, the qualification of teachers for successful work in the public schools. The Purdue University is the result of the Congress Act and appropriation for a system of Agricultural Colleges. Without that it would never have been thought of or undertaken. It is not a project that has sprung forth in obedience to a felt want, but an undertaking to secure and make available the gifts thrust upon it. Other States for a like reason have undertaken similar enterprises, and it is noteworthy that the almost universal verdict in regard to them is that they have been failures. This has been so indisputably the case, that serious thoughts have been entertained by Congress of moving for a forfeiture of some or all of the endowments. It remains for Indiana, if she can, profiting by the experience of others, to redeem this class of schools from disrepute, and make her Industrial school a success. Manifestly there is but one way to do it. That is by working a new field and rendering a special service. The opportunity is a great one. It is to commend education of a specific character to the great distinctive industry of America, agriculture; to impart an education at once theoretical and practical which shall promote two things, viz: the science of agriculture among the unlearned and the disposition to pursue agriculture as a profession by the learned. It must be a school acceptable and hence useful to farmers and other industries which will add to and not subtract from the class to whose interests it is devoted. If it accomplishes this end it will be a success; if it fail here, it will be a failure altogether. It is absurd for the State to attempt two Universities. If there is a reason for two, the same argument would justify three or four in the same field. Make the State University in fact what it professes to be in name and it would be both folly and injustice to start a rival on the same track. Hereafter when space permits, a course of proceeding may be indicated for it in detail. Suffice it to suggest now that this must be a school of both study and work. Every officer, professor and student must be a practical man able and willing to illustrate the fruits of an industrial education both by word and deed, by manual skill and theoretical science.

CUI BONO?

"What good?" says the tired teacher, "My efforts are not appreciated. My pupils and patrons are better pleased if I allow the former to float along easily, even if they do nothing that I deem of real benefit to them." The temptation to skim is very great. Even intelligent fathers and mothers are wont to judge the progress of their child by the pages of the book, and the small number who approve of "thoroughness" understand by it an accurate knowledge of facts. The intelligent teacher sees more in his work than nine-tenths of his patrons are able to see. With them it is the "what" and the "how," while with him it is the "why," and that too, having a deeper significance than the "why" of any particular "what" or "how." It is only the intelligent and *conscientious* teacher that will ignore the general sentiment of the community, for the sake of duty as he conceives it.

Let us consider the relation of teacher to pupil for a moment. The teacher is not the agent of the parent,—the public school teacher we mean,—he is not working for the parent in the sense that an agent works for his employer; he is not in his place to carry out the wishes of the parent in the education of the child; he *is the parent* in so far as his special work is concerned. The thought of our public school system is that the teacher stands "*in loco parentis*," and is responsible as a parent for the proper performance of his duty. So far as the wishes of the parent do not conflict with the good of the child they should be considered, but when through ignorance, or prejudice, or thoughtlessness he desires the teacher to pursue a course detrimental to the child, the teacher has no right to comply. If the relation of agency exists at all, it is between the teacher and the State. The latter appoints teachers and affords other facilities for the education of all children, but leaves it optional with the parent to accept or reject the offered conditions. By accepting them, he so far, yields the control and education of his child to another.

From this point of view the labor of the teacher is not the labor of a menial, but of one equal in rank. He no longer views himself as the servant of another, but as a laborer with others for the good of all. Inasmuch, however, as the dignity and independence of his work is increased, his responsibility becomes greater. He will look upon his pupils as his children, for whose proper training in his department of the work he is responsible only to society and to God.

Is it necessary for us then to answer the question, "What good is all this labor of leading a mind to become master of its powers?" This is the labor we have undertaken to perform, and we shall prove false to our trust if we neglect it. We are not working for smiles of approval from patrons or from school trustees,—though it is pleasant to have them from both. They care nothing for us personally, and we care nothing for them, only so far as our connection with their children and with them as individuals shall change our relation from that of the stranger to that of the acquaintance. Then why fret or worry over what A, B, or C, may think or say? The motto of David Crockett should be the motto of every teacher,—"Be sure you're right and then go ahead."

We have received President Richard Owens' report to the Trustees of Purdue University. Our readers will remember that this is the name given to our State Agricultural College that is to be.

President Owen was requested to present "a scheme of education appropriate for the University," as well as "a scheme for the government and administration of its affairs and property." We wish that we could truthfully say that we are pleased with this report. It is unpleasant to feel that another State institution is to be organized at great expense which is to fail to realize the ideal of its creation because of incapacity in its administration. But if this report is a fair exponent of the thought that is to direct and control the Purdue University, the trustees had better distribute the funds among the suffering poor.

His "Scheme of Education" is presented under the three heads of Physical, Moral and Intellectual instruction. But little is said under each of these. We look in vain for the development of the "idea" of an Agricultural College. We find instead an exhaustive enumeration of the different kinds of bodily exercise that should be required, such as "military drill for at least two days in the week for two hours in the afternoon;" on Saturdays they should go out with their professors "geologizing or botanizing or visiting large manufacturing establishments," or when it is wet they should exercise in the gymnasium. "There should also be grounds suitable for bathing, and swimming at safe places, *under proper supervision.*"

"To render the preservation of a good moral tone practical," pupils should bring testimonials of good moral character, and then be lectured "every Saturday morning by one of the professors" and also on Sunday afternoons. If this does not do it, then the school is to be divided "into sections of ten or fifteen," each of which is to be taken in charge by a senior who is expected to bring the boys "to time," and if he does not he must report to the President every Saturday.—Our bowels of compassion yearn for the poor seniors.—Cases requiring serious discipline shall be "tried by jury." In the "scheme" however there is an amendment to our criminal jurisprudence that we can not heartily recommend:—a majority vote can convict or acquit.—But since this plan has been tried "on the Continent with success," it is recommended to be introduced here.

This constitutes the "scheme" for Moral Instruction, somewhat abridged.

"Intellectual Advancement" requires that the student shall be capable at the end of four years to "teach analysis in a laboratory," "to superintend hands in a mine or iron-works (a nail factory for instance,) to survey land, &c., to direct dyeing, to run a locomotive,"

and lastly to "superintend a large farm" "a herd of cattle, a flock of sheep, or a pen of hogs."

We are left in the dark as to the course of study to be pursued to accomplish these desirable results, only so far as we infer it from the chairs recommended. Eight full professorships, however, are to be established; viz, Moral and Mental Philosophy, English Literature, Languages, Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics, Geology, &c., and Natural History."

But if the report is meagre in the presentation of the "Plan of Education," and "Course of Study," it is very full in the details of the "administration."

A few illustrations will show the care with which the President attends to this department. "A complete system of ventilation should be provided for, so that, if means have not sufficiently been adopted in the original construction of any building, panes of glass, and panels of doors having no transoms should be made movable. As being safer from accidental fire and wholesomer than stoves, open grates, burning coal and having a blower to help kindle the fire, *when out or low*, are strongly recommended; next to those, sheet-iron, air-tight stoves would be less liable to the inconvenience of *decomposing the air*, and with thorough ventilation, might not heat the head, while the feet remain cold, as is the case in many stove-rooms." (We do not recommend either the rhetoric or the chemistry of this, but the close attention to detail commands our admiration.) He recommends "animal food but once a day; a large use of corn meal and un-bolted flour; the abstaining from tea and coffee; having meals six hours apart; the giving of numbers to students upon entering, to secure uniformity regarding seats and numbers for napkin rings; though places and numbers may be changed by drawing tickets." This is to prevent cliques.

"It is also strongly recommended to cook by steam;" and here follows a long list of recommendations about the kind of stoves to be used, the "hoods to carry off the effluvia," dumb waiters, &c., &c. "In case ladies are admitted, a man should be employed with a leather apron slung over his shoulder and having a handle of leather on the lower side to carry (wood) from the horse or steam sawing-machine to the boxes in the rooms, which boxes have all been made to hold a definite quantity of wood of ordinary size for the fire-place or stove of that room." This is given as an economical way of keeping the wood account with the students, (We suppose that if the leather apron should have a wooden handle it would make no material difference.) It is also suggested "that excellent unbolted flour can be had in Dansville, New York, at $8.00 per barrel, freight usually $1.35 per barrel;" also "oat meal can be had of Messrs. Johnson & Co., (formerly from Canada) now of Rockford, Illinois." This smacks somewhat of "carrying coals to Newcastle."

But we must forbear, for want of space. President Owen is undoubtedly an excellent geologist and a fine gentleman, but it is evident that it is not his *forte* to "run" an Agricultural College. We hope he and his friends will see it, and that he will resign.

Contributions.

MIND AND MORALS.—No. III.*

The word Power, in one sense, means ability to act; capacity for acting.

A *mental*, or *mind Power* is an inherent, or inborn ability which the mind has for acting in a certain way. It is important that we should think of the mind, *not* as a *passive*, but as an *active* being.

If you have studied carefully No. I of this series of papers, you have seen that the mind is distinguished from the material body by its actions in Thinking, Feeling and Willing; and if you can discriminate an act of *thinking* from an act of *feeling*, and each of these from an act of *willing*—(choosing or deciding)—you can at once see that the mind acts in three different, or distinct ways, and hence it has three great powers, viz:

The power to Think;
The power to Feel;
The power to Will.

The first of these powers is called the *Intellect;* the second, the *Sensibility;* the third, the *Will.*

We may now present to the eye, in a diagram, some of the *relations* of the facts which we have observed, thus:

Man. { Material Body. / Mind. { Think,—Intellect. / Feel,—Sensibility. / Will,—Will. }

Define Man; Material Body; Mind.

Define the Intellect; the Sensibility; the Will. Give examples which will illustrate the action of each power.

I.

Notice carefully the following instances of knowing:

(1.) I am certain (*know*) that I smell an odor.
(2.) I am certain that I hear a sound.
(3.) I am certain that the apple is sweet.
(4.) I am certain that the object (apple) has form, and that it is red.
(5.) I am certain that the object (apple) is smooth, and mellow, and that it has weight, &c.

You will observe,

First: That in each of the above instances of acts of knowing, the mind uses a different organ.

Secondly: That the mind uses five different bodily organs. (Name them.)

Thirdly: That by the use of each organ, the mind gets a different kind of knowledge.

In (1), the mind gets a knowledge of odor—a mere feeling; in (2), it gets a knowledge of sound—a feeling, but a different feeling from that in (1); in (3) it gets a knowledge of flavor—a feeling—but a different one from either of the others.

In (4) the mind gets a knowledge of color and of form, and in (5) it gets a knowledge of various *properties* of the object (apple).

Note. To discover the various *properties* and *relations*

*Copyright secured.

of the object by the mode suggested in (5) will interest you, if you have a wholesome curiosity—if you have not yet *unlearned* that the knowledge which you gain by your own observations and experiments is of considerable value to you.

Fourthly: That these different kinds of knowledge which the mind gains in the ways noticed, relate to external material objects—to an external material world—to a solid substantial world, wherever we have our home for the present. So we *believe*.

Note. Any good text-book on Physiology will describe the organs which the mind uses in the kind of knowing to which your attention has been called; but you will need to discriminate carefully between the *physical condition* of knowing, and a knowing act,—between the instrument and the agent.

Suggestion; The pupil should be led to exercise each of his senses on appropriate objects, and be VERY careful to distinguish between what he knows *immediately* as a fact, and what he knows as an *inference*.

II.

(1.) Again, at another time, I am certain that I "*seem*" to see my father, my mother, my brother, my sister, or my home, although each is miles away from me, at the moment.

(2.) I am certain that I now recall my lesson of yesterday, and what was said about it in the class by myself and by others.

(3.) I am certain that I can recall ideas, or mental pictures of objects that I have once known, and that I can combine them in entirely new relations, thus forming a new picture—a picture unlike anything that I have ever seen or known before.

By attending to what passes in my mind, I observe that the mind is constantly forming new and different mental pictures.

In the examples under II, notice,

First: That the mind's way of knowing differs from that observed in the examples under I.

In the examples under I the different kinds of objects which the mind knew, were known as *related* to external, material objects; and these objects were in such relation to the body as to affect the sense-organs. They were believed to have an existence independent of ourselves.

In the examples under II, the sense-organs need not be affected. The objects which the mind knows are *mental objects*—objects created by the mind itself.

Secondly: That the mind is constantly *re-producing*, i. e., producing again—and *recognizing*. i. e., knowing again objects which it has known by means of the senses.

III.

(1.) I am certain that I can find the true answer to the following question:

"What will five barrels of flour cost at eight dollars a barrel?"

(2.) I am certain that my mind can go through a process of thinking by which I can know that the sum of any two sides of a triangle is greater than the third side.

(3.) My mind can go through a process by which I can know that all organic beings will die.

The two forms of reasoning, the *demonstrative* and the *probable*, may be illustrated by the above examples, or by similar ones.

The first great point to make clear is, that the way of knowing suggested by the examples under III. differs from the way observed under I. and II.

In the cases under III., (1) for example, the knowledge which the mind seeks is not a knowledge of the form, color, size—*properties* of the barrel or barrels of flour *as such;* nor yet is it knowledge of one or more dollars *as such*. It is knowledge of a *relation*, that is sought and found.

1 barrel of flour = $8, expresses a relation of identity between the two objects in respect of value. This relation remaining, the number of dollars with which five barrels of flour is identical in value, is the knowledge sought.

A second point which can be made, is, that the objects which the mind knows by this last process differ from those known by either of the other processes. By the last process the mind finds the relation of things.

IV.

(1.) As I look at my pencil, or at a book, a tree, or a stone, I notice that each has length, breadth, and thickness. Each object has solid extension. My mind knows at once that something must exist prior to this solid extension—something *within which* the object could extend. This something which makes the solid extension possible is space. Hence, I am *certain* that *space* is.

(2.) Again, I observe, that, as I recall the different acts of my mind in giving these examples of knowing, each was a distinct—a separate act. Each act was preceded, and was followed by another act. All the acts which my mind has ever put forth, are seen to have occurred in an order of succession. One came, and went; another came, and went, and so on. Each act began, endured, and ended.

The mind sees at once, that something must exist prior to the mental acts, or states, by which it was made possible for a mental act to appear, and for a succession of mental acts to appear. A something within which a mental act could begin and end.

This something within which mental acts can appear, and succeed one another is *Time*. Hence, I am certain that *Time is*.

Note. There are other facts of a similar character, in some respects, which need not now be noticed. If the two facts, Space and Time, are too difficult to be attained by the pupils at this stage, the matter under IV may be omitted. But it is of great importance that the pupil shall be made clearly conscious of these two facts (Space and Time) as soon as possible.

At the beginning of this article, it was shown *why* the mind is said to have *three* great powers, and these powers were named.

The mind's power to *know* was called the *Intellect*.

All the examples given under the divisions I, II, III, and IV express acts of knowing; hence these acts are *intellectual* acts.

Now if you have studied with sufficient care, the examples given under *each* of the divisions above referred to, and have given many similar ones of your own, you have learned by this time that the *intellect* acts in different ways, as the conditions differ, under which it acts; and that according to its different ways of acting, the objects which the mind knows, differ.

In the examples under I the mind acts through the organs of sense (name them), and gets a knowledge of the attributes of material things.

It is by this way of knowing that the mind becomes conscious of—knows—an external, material world.

In the examples under II the mind does not act through the senses,—it reproduces, or *re*-creates objects that are not now, and here present to the senses—objects which it has once known.

In the examples under III, the mind gains a knowledge of the *relations* of objects.

In such examples as those under IV, the mind gets a knowledge of *necessary* and *universal* truths; as, Time, Space, and some others which may be brought to light further on. Space is seen at once to be a *necessary* condition for the extension of material things—a material world. Time is also at once seen to be the *necessary* condition for succession. Time and Space—not alone perhaps—may be seen to be *necessary* pre-suppositions for any knowing by the lower processes numbered I, II and III.

You will observe that the mind acts in the four ways mentioned—*naturally—spontaneously—originally.* Hence the *intellect*, or the mind's power to know, may be said to have four distinct faculties.

An *intellectual* faculty is an original, natural way which the mind has for exerting itself in knowing.

The mind has as many distinct intellectual faculties as it has original and natural ways of gaining knowledge. We have found that the mind has four distinct and original ways of knowing; and that, therefore, it has four *intellectual faculties.*

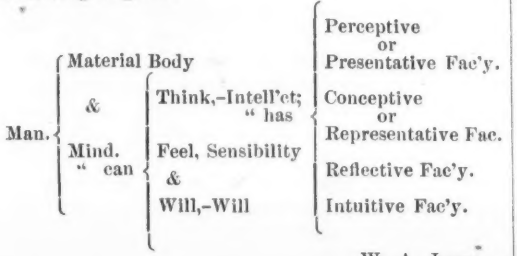
The examples under I, illustrate the exercise of the Perceptive, or Presentative Faculty; those under II, that of the Conceptive, or Representative Faculty; those under III, that of the Reflective Faculty; those under IV, that of the Intuitive Faculty.

Define each of the Intellectual faculties. Tell the reason for ascribing to the mind three great powers. Tell the reason for ascribing to the mind four intellectual faculties. Illustrate by an original example the action of each of the mental powers. Illustrate by an original example the action of each of the Intellectual faculties.

Select from your school-books sentences or paragraphs which express action, first, of the three great powers; second, of the perceptive, the conceptive, and the reflective faculty.

In the conversation between the pupils and the teacher at a given time and place, the language used by each expresses the action of what faculties, so far as you can decide?

If you can answer clearly and understandingly the above questions, and many more which should be asked for the purpose of bringing out the points in the several divisions of the subject, you will be able to interpret the following diagram:



W. A. JONES.

PAPERS ON ARITHMETIC—NO. V.

FIRST TRUTHS, *or intuitive and necessary principles involved in addition, multiplication, subtraction and division.*

[*First truths are necessary truths, i. e.,* the intellect must be constrained by the constitution of its being and the spontaneous workings of its nature to receive them as true. It can not know objects of any kind except under these relations and according to the connections which they involve. Should it attempt to do so, or to prove that it does not employ and recognize them, it would make the effort of knowing without them and of proving that it did not, by using these very relations in its efforts and its arguments..... First truths must be *logically prior* to, and independent of, all other truths. They can be resolved into none other, and can be proved by none other. They are propositions so clear that they can neither be proved nor attacked by any propositions more clear than themselves.....They are called *self-evident* truths and intuitions because they need only to be seen or apprehended to be believed.....First truths, or intuitive relations are implied as in one sense the support or foundation of the processes of deduction, but not in the way of ultimate premises. From their very nature they are simply statements concerning those relations or elements that are present in every act of our higher knowledge. It is because they are present as an essential and necessary element in all these processes that they must of necessity be the *conditions* of deduction.—PORTER'S ELEMENTS OF INTELLECTUAL SCIENCE. *Page* 429. § 248.]

Remark. The statements have been made that the mind has power to operate upon numbers and to view the results of its operations as bearing certain relations to the numbers operated upon. In presenting the parts of Number in logical arrangement, and the entire subject as deductive science, it is necessary to go back of these statements and announce the *necessary principles* which make their comprehension possible.

The developing mind has a knowledge of operations and definitions long before it recognizes the principles by virtue of which such knowledge is attainable. At the proper period in development, the mind becomes conscious of *necessary truths as such.* They are then formulated and recognized as principles upon which are based knowledges already familiar. In the statement of the following principles, the reader will observe that some of them are preceded by notes used in illustration.

Note. In thought and in fact, objects may be combined; so may numbers, since they are our conceptions of objects as wholes, or as parts.

PRINCIPLE. *Numbers can be combined or added.*

Note. Like objects are those that are viewed with reference to a common attribute. Like numbers are those that are applied to like objects, or those that are not applied to objects. (Abstract numbers.) Only like objects can be combined and the result named from a common attribute.

PRINCIPLE. *Only like numbers can be added.*

Note. The whole which results from combining objects is composed of the parts combined.

PRINCIPLE. *The sum or whole is of the same name and order as the numbers added.*

PRINCIPLE. *The sum, or whole is equal to its parts.*

PRINCIPLE. *The sum, or whole is greater than any of its parts.*

Remark. Since multiplication is a modified form of addition, the same principles as those already given, are applicable by a mere change of terminology.

PRINCIPLE. *The Multiplicand may be concrete or abstract.*

PRINCIPLE. *The product is of the same name and order as the Multiplicand.*

PRINCIPLE. *The multiplier is an abstract number.*

Remark. Addition and Subtraction being converse operations, the principles of subtraction are seen in the light of those of addition.

Note. Since only like objects can be combined into a sum, or whole, it follows that a whole can be separated into like parts only.

PRINCIPLE. *The difference can be found between like numbers, only.*

PRINCIPLE. *The difference, or remainder is of the same name and order as the minuend.*

PRINCIPLE. *The sum of the subtrahend and remainder equals the minuend.*

Note. From the nature of division, (as the converse of multiplication,) the divisor and quotient correspond to the multiplicand and multiplier.

PRINCIPLE. *The product of the divisor and quotient equals the dividend.*

PRINCIPLE. *The quotient is of the same order as the dividend.*

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

1. If the same number be added to equal numbers, the resulting sums are equal.
2. Multiplying either factor multiplies the product.
3. Multiplying both factors by the same number multiplies the product by the square of that number.
4. Dividing either factor divides the product.
5. Dividing both factors by the same number divides the product by the square of that number.
6. Adding the same number to both minuend and subtrahend does not affect the value of the remainder.
7. If the same number be subtracted from equal numbers, the remainders are equal.
8. If the dividend be multiplied, or the divisor divided, the quotient is multiplied.
9. If the divisor be multiplied, or the dividend divided, the quotient is divided.
10. If both dividend and divisor be either multiplied, or divided by the same number. the value of the quotient is not changed.

N. NEWBY.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY.

BY WM. T. HARRIS.

I. *The Essential and the Unessential..*

I listened once to a recitation on the Constitution of the United States at a Normal School examination. I was astonished a few days afterwards to hear a distinguished friend of education criticise the recitation with great severity. The extreme accuracy with which the pupils entered into details and illustrated and applied the provisions of the Constitution, or discussed the parliamentary law in force in our national legislature, seemed to have excited only disgust. My inquiries elicited the following ejaculation: "Why, there isn't one of that class that could tell who the United States Representative from this district is." I have often reflected since on the presuppositions of this criticism. That it belongs to the species emanating from the school of thinkers that has asked the question, "What knowledge is of most worth?" is evident from its style. But my reflections have not convinced me that the answers, suggested to that famous question by its propounders, are in any degree satisfactory. First, they lay great stress on the familiar and what lies nearest to us practically. Secondly, they endeavor on all occasions to cry down the general and universal and elevate into prominence the particular and specific. When we look into their schools to see what they mean by what they do—the only way of testing theories, inasmuch as people are so unconscious of what they really hold practically—we find that they are busily engaged in lifting the pupil out of his senses under the plea of teaching how to use them correctly. For they lay great stress on having the pupil think and reflect upon what he sees. That is, they would have him see not only what is present before him, but also what is absent and of too great a scope to be seen with the bodily eyes. For to reflect on the visible is to mix up immediate facts with other facts preserved in the memory from former experience and which can not now be seen with the bodily eye; it is, moreover, to measure the particular facts before you with generalizations that surpass in extent and compass the immediate fact, as the universal does the particular. The general can not be perceived by the naked eye; you can not with a piece of chalk draw a universal triangle on the board to present to the eye any proposition in geometry. You will draw some one of an infinite number of possible illustrations. But the mind's eye—the power of reflection—sees the truth of the proposition exhaustively.

What is a fact? A fact is a RELATIVE SYNTHESIS, I reply. It comprehends or embraces some portion of an event. How large this portion may be is arbitrary—dependent on the exercise of insight and reflection, as well as the exercise of the five senses. To the swine that run to devour it,—the fall of an apple is a fact but it has a very small compass, it is a small synthesis. To Isaac Newton sitting under the tree, the same fact swelled into such large proportions that it included the fall of the moon in its orbit around the earth, and thus became the fact of universal gravitation. The smaller the arc of an event the less true is its statement taken as a fact. For everything depends on something else, and until we know this something else we do not accurately apprehend the simple fact. We progress in science toward the comprehension of the total fact—the cosmos—in each particular. With-

out INFERENCE, which is the activity of reflection, what we could get through the senses dwindles merely to a point—to an arc so small as to give us no clue to the whence and whither of its restless change. It is the whence and whither that must be added to the sensuous fact to make it a fact of any importance. Therefore cultivation of the senses means practically to teach how to think and reflect in the presence of immediate facts and not be absorbed in simple contemplation.

But I will return from this digression to state the results of my reflections on the implied criticism of the method of instruction in the Constitution. My friend would have had the pupils learn the names of the Representatives from their own section. This would indicate a practical acquaintance with the subject, according to his view. At once however the observation is forced upon us that the pupil might know the names of all the representatives in Congress, and yet not know what Congress is or what the duties of a member of Congress are, nor anything whatever of the mode of organizing Congress. The essential and the unessential must be distinguished by the teacher. He must make his synthesis contain what is general, for such facts alone are of importance. To comprehend the nature of the Constitution, its scope and bearings—the duties it imposes on the several branches of the government which it organizes—the manner and mode of inducting the particular individual into the functions of the organization; the forms of parliamentary law which have grown up through centuries of experience as necessary to the accomplishment of rational ends in a deliberative body—to comprehend these things is to know scientifically the essential nature of our government. And, in knowing this, one knows the essential elements of all governments and the essential duties of all legislators, executives and judiciaries; not merely the duties and responsibilities of John Smith, recently elected from our district, but those of all the Representatives, and all the Senators, and all the Judges in the whole land. On the other hand to know the name of our representative is to know what is unessential, a mere accident. For our district elected a representative with another name year before last, and will elect other men with other names in the future. But in knowing the Constitution we know the essence of their functions as legislators, and therefore know the important fact of their office. If we have business with them personally it will be as easy to inquire their names as to inquire out their residences, which would be necessary in all events. As a voter it is certainly the business of the citizen to make himself acquainted with the personal qualifications of the candidates for office. But the school cannot take upon itself personal services of this sort.

Reflection is the activity most needed in the correct use of the senses. The perception of the relations of an object perceived is the essential activity of the mind. The mere object is a very small portion of itself—its being is in its relations, and reflection perceives its being in those relations. Man achieves directive power through this. The power of the man over the mere physical strength of the brute lies in the activity of reflection. The swine who perceived the fall of the apple and ran to devour it, put his knowledge of facts to a good use, no doubt, but the swine's whole existence was subservient to the larder of some reflecting human being. The practical effects of Newton's reflections have such immensity of scope that we will not enter upon them here.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—III.

In the last number we gave several forms which sentences may assume under the influence of words modifying the subject, the predicate, and the copula. These modifying words may in turn be modified by other words, and those by others, until the thought is expressed with sufficient definiteness.

We will next consider the basis for the classification of sentences into Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative and Exclamatory.

1. I may think of the object *apple* with reference to the attribute *ripeness* and decide that ripeness belongs to the apple. This judgment is expressed by the sentence, "The apple is ripe," in which I simply state or declare what my judgment is. Or I may decide that ripeness does not belong to the apple; in which case I state or declare my judgment in the words "The apple is not ripe." This action of the mind is purely an intellectual one; and the sentence in either case is a simple statement of the judgment formed. Such sentences are called Declarative.

A Declarative sentence, therefore, is one that simply states something, either affirmitively or negatively.

2. I may think of the apple with reference to the attribute ripeness and may not be able to determine whether or not the attribute belongs to the object. This may be called an undetermined judgment. Attending this may be the desire to know. I give expression to both these conditions of mind by the the inquiry, "Is the apple ripe?" It will be seen that the action of the mind in this case is not purely intellectual. There is a greater or less admixture of the feeling of desire to know. This undetermined judgment with its attendant desire is called a Question. The words used to express it are called an Interrogative sentence.

NOTE.—Sentences may be Interrogative in form, that are declarative in meaning; as, "Can the leopard change his spots or the Ethiopian his skin?" This is simply an emphatic expression of a negative judgment, and is properly a Declarative sentence.

3. I may think of an object, "John," with reference to the act of studying, and will that he shall study. This thought I express by the word "Study," which is called an Imperative sentence.

The thought itself may be called a Command. It will be seen that prominence is given to the action of the will in the sentence as well as in the thought, and this is regarded as the mark of distinction in all imperative sentences.

NOTE.—Imperative sentences are peculiar in this, that they never have their subjects expressed by a separate word. In the sentence given above, the subject, predicate,and copula are all combined in one word.

4. I may think of an object, as a picture, with reference to the attribute beauty and decide that it possesses that attribute in a remarkable degree. This awakens feeling or emotion in the mind, the expression of which I desire to make prominent in the sentence. This I do by the words, "How beautiful the picture is!" or better, by the two words "How beautiful!" This action of the mind is called an Exclamation, and the words form an Exclamatory sentence. In all such sentences the expression of the judgment is subordinate to that of the emotions.

We have, therefore, this classification of sentences, based upon the action of the mind to which the speaker wishes to give expression.

In the Declarative sentence the thought is purely intellectual in character; in the Interrogative there is a combination of the Intellect and Sensibilities; in the Imperative prominence is given to the action of the Will; and in the Exclamatory the action of the Sensibilities is greater than that of any other power.

I have taken so much space for the discussion of this simple subject,

1. Because I believe that a very large number of those who teach Grammar, have never thought much about the reasons for this classification of sentences, and

2. Because I would like to emphasize the truth, that the science of language, as well as most other sciences, has an intimate relation to the science of mind, and that he who would study or teach any subject most successfully needs a basis of psychological knowledge.

GEO. P. BROWN.

HOW SHALL WE TEACH PENMANSHIP?

NO. 1.

This question has always been an important one, and is becoming more so every year. We offer the following remarks, hoping they will help those teachers who do not have the time and opportunity to avail themselves of a course of lessons under a competent teacher.

The teacher must understand *what* is to be done and *how* to do it. A good way to get this knowledge is to take the copy-book to be used in the class, and write it through in *advance* of the class. By so doing the teacher will improve his own writing and learn the critical points. He should also practice blackboard writing until he can write a good plain hand, not only forming the letters correctly, but give to each letter the proper slant, and the proper space between letters and between words. He should keep on his desk a Manual of Penmanship to which he can turn for information regarding the formation and description of the letter or letters to be made by the class.

All the scholars in the same grade or room should have the same number of copy-book; they should provide themselves with a practice book and blotter; they should purchase the same kind of ink and pens where they are not furnished by the Board of Education.

It is evident that *some* system should be adopted which will save time in distributing books and pens. No arbitrary rule can be given that will adapt itself to all school-rooms, as they are not seated alike; but where the arrangement of seats will admit of it, we believe the following plan will be found satisfactory. The teacher should take charge of the writing materials and distribute them only for the writing lesson. Divide the rows of seats into two sections. If there are eight rows of seats, divide in the center of the room. Place the books belonging to each section, arranged in the order the pupils sit, in the end seats where the division is made. The first scholar's book being at the bottom, and that of the last scholar on top of the pile. One section will pass to the right, and the other to the left, as follows: at the order, "Take books," the scholars on the end seats, on the right and left sides of the division, drop their own books on their desks, and at the word "Pass," pass the remaining books to the next pupils, and so on until all are distributed. In collecting, the reverse order will be observed. When the books are again lying on the end seats where the division is made, two monitors appointed for the purpose come forward and collect them, taking care to lay the piles crosswise of each other, and carry the whole to the place appointed for them. Two monitors should also be appointed to distribute and collect pens, and they should follow the book monitors. The pens of each section may be kept in a little box convenient for the purpose. In distributing pens, the monitors will leave as many pens on the end seats of each section as there are scholars in that row of seats. When the books have been passed, the pens may be passed in like manner, and collected in like manner.

During the distribution and collection of books and pens, the scholars should all sit quietly and in order when not receiving or passing books or pens. This is a pleasing exercise if properly conducted, and very little time is consumed. Every pupil must obey, promptly, every order of the teacher. There must be no lagging. There must be perfect system about every exercise connected with the writing lesson, or it will be unpleasant and unprofitable. One minute and a half is time enough for distributing books and pens.

Before the pupils begin to write, they should be thoroughly instructed in the correct position of the body, arms, hands and pen. A great mistake is made by teachers, generally, in partially, or totally ignoring the laws of correct position. Position gives power to execute; and no great excellence in writing need be expected in a class where the rules governing position are not thoroughly and persistently taught, and rigidly followed by the pupils.

A large majority of our most skillful teachers have adopted in the main the following rules. Let the body be comfortably erect, with the right side gently inclined to the desk, and the feet flat on the floor.

Let the right fore-arm rest on the lower right-hand corner of the desk, and on the muscles of the arm, about three inches forward of the elbow.

The fore-arm should point to the upper left-hand corner of the desk. Put the book in the desk in such a position that the fore-arm will cross the ruled lines at right angles. Keep the arm in its position, and move the book upward as often as necessary. The body should not lean against the desk, but should be close to it. No more than the weight of the arm should rest on the desk. Much attention should be paid to this rule to prevent heavy pressure on the fore-arm, and thus destroy freedom. The left hand should be put on the margin of the leaf above the copy, to keep the book from moving. Do not bend the wrist, but keep the hand in a line with the forearm.

The pen should be held between the first two fingers and the end of the thumb. The first finger should lie down on top of the pen-holder, and the second finger should drop under the pen-holder, which should cross it obliquely at the root of the nail. The pen-holder should also cross the first finger forward of the knuckle joint. The third and fourth fingers should bend under the palm of the hand, and form a sliding rest on the nails. The thumb should be bent out to the left, and the end put partly under the pen-holder, and opposite the first joint of the first finger. About half of the pen-holder should be in view between the end of the thumb and the fore-finger. The hand must be turned over to the left until the pen-holder points nearly over the right shoulder. Under no circumstances should the hand rest on its side. Grasp the holder gently.

The teacher should *illustrate* all the points in good position *often*, and *watch* and *criticise, constantly*, until the correct habit has been formed. Too much attention can not be given to the matter of position, for, without something like correct position, we can never acquire the power to write words connectedly; and the habit of breaking a word into two or more sections is a pernicious one, and should be carefully avoided. We all desire to write a uniform hand. We desire to write legibly, rapidly and easily. The power to do this must come through movement, and good movement is the result of good position.

Good movement can best be attained by using a graded series of exercise copies, prepared with the single view of developing power and facility with the pen in moving the hand and fore-arm, rightward and leftward, upward and downward, and in any direction at command of the will.

One or more exercise copies should be practiced by the class—in their practice books—every lesson before writing in their copy-books.

For full particulars of movements and exercise copies, see any Manual of Penmanship.

O. Reynolds.

(To be continued.)

School Officers' Department.

THE PLAN IN MARION COUNTY.

1. DEFINITIONS.

County Superintendency is regarded as meaning direct oversight of the public schools. It embraces more than visiting. It *plans* for the teachers, it corresponds with the teachers, it feels for and works with the teachers, it economizes for the parents, it sympathizes with the children, it contemplates the welfare of the country at large. It is to the county nearly the same that city superintendency is to a city; differing only in the character of the school system. The system in the city regards the whole cause as one great school; the different buildings being only so many convenient provisions for its various classes. In County Supervision each house must be regarded as containing a distinct school in which all the classes are taught.

In Marion County there are one hundred and eleven schools, all of which, save seven, are managed by single teachers. These seven are organized in only two or three separate rooms each; and therefore the problem of grading is regarded as one great difficulty.

A COURSE OF STUDY

Has been created and sent to each school providing a plan on which a practical classification can be made. It divides the common schools into three departments, and subdivides again into eight grades, viz: first, second and third Primary, and first, second and third Intermediate, and first and second Grammar.

The course proposes to take the pupil carefully and gradually through the branches prescribed by the law, and to be about eight common school years about it, preparing him well for High School at the ideal age of fourteen.

This course of study was made out by a committee of one from each township in conference with the county superintendent, at the opening of the school year; and the schools are succeeding variously in pros ecuting it.

THE VISITING

Is on this plan:—To reach each school twice during the year, and the weaker ones oftener. Two visits are deemed necessary in order first—to properly introduce the course at as early a day as possible; secondly—to see and criticise the actual workings of the schools.

The first visit is now being made in a very hurried manner, the superintendent sometimes reaching five schools in a day. During these hurried visits the teachers are encouraged, admonished or corrected as the occasion may suggest. The pupils are urged to compete with the pupils of other schools, and occasionally the parents are addressed in evening lectures. The course of study is the chief consideration presented, and much pains is taken to make it thoroughly clear to teachers and pupils.

These hurried visits are to be followed in close order by a system of

MONTHLY REPORTING.

A blank has been prepared and circulated to the teachers wherein the result of the monthly examination may be embodied, presenting the name of each pupil, his grade, age, standing in each several branch, average scholarship, times tardy, times absent, general behavior and times punished.

The pupils are apprised that their names are thus to be sent to the office and scrutinized by the superintendent, and it is intended that it shall act as an incentive.

THE MONTHLY EXAMINATIONS

Are made by means of series of questions adapted to the work of the current month as laid out in the course of study. The teachers make up the estimates from written answers of the pupils and hold the childrens' papers open to the superintendent's scrutiny at all times.

THE OFFICE WORK

Such as corresponding, meeting callers, making records, drafting blanks, etc., is assigned to Monday of each week—the other four school days being occupied in visiting schools, and the Saturdays, except one in each month for monthly examination, to attending Township Institutes.

The County Commissoners are disposed to be generously inclined and it is thought the plan will not suffer for want of a fair trial.

W. S. SMITH.

THE following is an abstract of a recent decision by Supt. M. B. Hopkins:—

1. In case actions are brought for violation of the liquor law, by a city, the fines so received belong to the common school fund because the law is *a law of the State* and fines assessed for breaches of the laws of the state belong to the common school fund, according to art. 5, sec. 2 of the constitution of the state.

2. In case the Mayor should at any time, perform the duties belonging to Justices of the Peace and collect fines belonging to the state, the fines should be kept separate from those belonging to the city, because all moneys collected for the violation of the penal laws of the state are a part of the common school fund; while those collected for the violations of by-laws and ordinances of the city, a part of the city revenue. Inasmuch as one part of said collections is paid to the County Treasurer and the other part to the City Treasurer, their separation is a necessity.

Our Exchanges.

THE METHODIST comes to us this month in a new form, a quarto, and with new type and fine paper, making altogether a good appearance.

THE MICHIGAN TEACHER is edited by H. A. Ford, and is therefore a very readable paper. There is but little original matter in the body of the last number. Is this to be attributed to the panic?

THE WEST VIRGINIA EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL is a wide-awake paper. It is edited by Dr. J. G. Blair, principal of the State Normal School at Fairmount.

THE CHICAGO TEACHER is as acid and vixenish as usual. A little downright impudence, if delivered in a manly way is refreshing, but as a steady diet it becomes naus eating.

THE NATIONAL NORMAL for November, is filled with its usual amount of general news. As an intelligence office it is a success. Little attention seems to be given to the other departments.

THE INDIANA SCHOOL JOURNAL for November is a good number. In it we find a good paper by Miss Delia Lathrop. Its editorial department is better cared for than usual, and its personals are always well worked up.

THE PENNSYLVANIA SCHOOL JOURNAL, J. P. Wickersham editor, is one of the best educational papers in the country. It discusses the various educational topics of the day, with marked ability and fairness. It is never tame and is always dignified.

THE WESTERN, comes to us from St. Louis. This city has a number of scholarly men and women connected with the public schools, and these contribute liberally to the Western, published by E. F. Hobart & Co. It is one of the strongest educational papers in the West.

THE NATIONAL TEACHER for November, comes laden with its usual amount of valuable matter. The Editorial department is unusually full and contains some excellent instructions. Much space is occupied with the presentation of methods of teaching spelling and penmanship. The Teacher is too well known to need any words of recommendation from us.

THE SCHOOL-ROOM.—It appears that the men distinguished in science have usually been born in small towns, and educated by imperfect teachers, who made the boys think for themselves. Nothing is brought out more clearly in the work that the first desideratum in scientific education is to stimulate curiosity, and the observation of real things, and that too much encouragement of the receptive faculty is a serious error. The author justly laments that the art of observation is not only untaught, but is actually discouraged by modern education Children are apt and eager to observe; but, instead of encouraging and regulating their instincts, the school-masters keep them occupied solely on internal ideas, such as grammar, the vocabularies of different languages, arithmetic, history and poetry. They learn about the living world which surrounds them out of books, and not through their own eyes. One of the reformations he proposes, is to make much more use of drawing as a means of careful observation, compelling the pupils to draw quickly the object they have to describe, from memory, after a short period allowed for its examination. He is a strong advocate for the encouragement of a class of scientific sinecurists like the non-working fellows of our colleges, who should have leisure to investigate, and not be pestered by the petty mechanical work of continual teaching and examining.—*Galton.*

Educational Intelligence.

We desire to give, as fully as our space will allow, the latest educational news of our own State, and hope our friends will afford us the necessary information. Notice of the time and place of all meetings of an educational character, together with changes of school officers, etc., etc., will be gladly received.

——Mr. Mohler has been appointed to succeed Mr. Temple H. Dunn as Principal of the Muncie Academy, the latter having resigned on account of his health.

——The Benton County Institute was held from Oct. 6th to 10th inclusive. The number of *actual teachers* in attendance was 30 males and 17 females. Total, 47. Amount of money drawn from County Treasury, $35.

FRANK C. CASSELL, Co. Sup't.

——E. W. Thompson, Superintendent of the Franklin Schools, has arranged for a High School Lecture Course the coming season. The lecturers engaged are Robert Collyer, H. A. Ford, W. H. Milburn, Mrs. Mary Livermore, Daniel Hough, Hon. Wm. Parsons, Thos Nast and E. B. Fairfield. The proceeds go to the Library Fund.

——The Eighth Annual Institute of Jasper County convened at Rensselaer, September 29th, and continued in session five days. Number enrolled, seventy-nine; daily attendance, sixty-one. The principal instructors were the County Superintendent, J. H. Snoddy, and J. A. Burnham. The grading of the District Schools was made a specialty.

——The Ripley Co. Teacher's Institute met during the last week in October. Enrollment 105. Average attendance 73 3-5. Much interest and enthusiasm were manifested by both teachers and citizens. All pronounced it a success. The instructors were selected from Ripley county teachers, and their lessons were plain, practical and had special reference to our common school work. HEZEKIAH SHOOK, Co. Sup't.

——THE following note from an aspirant for pedagogic honors is refreshing. We copy "verbatim et literatim:"

—— Ind October the 5 1873

Mr—— as I have not resieved any report from you a bout lysense yet I would lyke to Now why you have not gave mee a report and if you pleas right and lett me now as soon as you resieve this note yours truley ——

——A "Friend of Common Schools" wants to read a well-written article on the evils of absenteeism, and some of the ways and means of lessening them. Now we could tell what would be done in Indianapolis to lessen the evil, but we should not like to undertake it for Boone county or for Pike. If any of our friends feel enough interest in the subject to prepare such an article, we shall be quite willing to publish it.

——HENRY COUNTY INSTITUTE.—Newcastle, Aug. 25, 1873.—Number of actual teachers in attendance: males, 65; females, 22; total, 87; average, 58. Number of above who have never taught, 15. Amount of money drawn from treasury $50. The instructors in the Institute were Joseph Franklin, G. W. Hufford, N. Newby, Daniel Hough, Timothy Wilson and the County Superintendent. ENOS ADAMSON, County Superintendent.

——SWITZERLAND COUNTY.—Information comes to us through a Township Trustee that the schools of Vevay have opened under very favorable circumstances. Ten teachers are employed. The German language is among the branches taught. Four hundred and thirty pupils are enrolled in the schools. The teachers hold regularly an Institute on the first Saturday of each month from which much good is expected. A growing interest in education is felt throughout the county. Superintendent Griffith is said to be rendering valuable aid in organizing the schools. A number of new houses have recently been built, some of stone and others of brick. Teachers are paid from $1.50 to $2.00 per day. Many are not satisfied with the wages, and are looking elsewhere for employment.

——We have now on hand a number of sets of school-mottoes, consisting of twelve cards, which are most excellent for use in the shool-room. They are printed on the best card-board in four colors, green, yellow, salmon and blue. The following are the mottoes:

Who does the best he can, does well. Better be alone than in bad company. Be slow to promise, quick to perform! Think, speak and act the truth! The truly good are the truly happy! As we sow so shall we reap! He liveth long who liveth well! Always ready! I will never be late! By perseverance we overcome difficulties! Strive to please! Learn to wait! Dare to do right! I can, if I will! A fault confessed is half mended! They will be furnished, postage paid, at 85 cents a set, by the editors of the EDUCATIONIST.

CHARLESTOWN, IND., Oct. 23, 1873.

GEO. P. BROWN—*Dear Sir:* An item in your paper of September is pregnant with errors. You state that the Trustee of *Jefferson* township, Clark county, runs his schools *twelve* months in the year without any *special* tax. In the first place there is no such township in the county; in the second place, there is no township in the county that has school longer than *nine months;* in the third place, if any Trustee should do such a thing, he would have to use the *tuition tax;* and in the last place, there is no man in Clark county that desires that the schools should hold twelve months. Such slight errors will creep into the best papers occasionally. I am proud to say that the schools in Jeffersonville township, Clark county, have for the last three years held full *nine months;* but in order to do this the Trustee levied a *tuition tax.* I can now call to mind two corporations and one township that will have nine months term; one township that will have eight months; and one town and two townships that will have six months school.

Very truly yours, A. C. GOODWIN,
County Superintendent.

[We acknowledge the error and beg pardon for the blunder. It is Pike township, Ohio county, to which the honor of cheap teaching and twelve month schools belongs.—ED.]

——The Henry County Superintendent has had one hundred applications for license, and granted eighty-two. Of these, eleven were for twenty-four months, fourteen for eighteen months, twenty-two for twelve months, and thirty-five for eight months.

——Marshall County.—Date of Institute, Oct. 20., 1873. No. of actual teachers in attendance; males, 35; females, 26; average daily attendance, 61; whole number enrolled, 90; number of the above who never taught, 11; amount of money drawn from County Treasury for expenses of Institute, $1.35. H. B. Brown, of the Normal School at Valparaiso, was with us one day, otherwise it was self-sustaining. It was as interesting as any we ever had. No lectures at night.

F. McDonald, Co. Sup't.

——Marion County.—The number of Teachers and the salary per diem paid them:

TOWNSHIP.	MEN.		WOMEN.		NAME OF TRUSTEE.
	NUM.	RATE.	NUM.	RATE.	
No. 1. Center	5	$2 30	9	$2 25	Chas. John.
" 2. Decatur	4	2 45	8	2 35	Jacob Horner.
" 3. Perry	2	3 12	12	2 33	E. F. Norwood.
" 4. Franklin	7	2 50	2	2 12	J. S. Thompson.
" 5. Warren	5	2 50	6	2 25	Wm. Hunter.
" 6. Lawrence	8	2 20	4	2 10	Sam'l L. Corey.
" 7. Washington	7	2 25	8	2 25	John H. Smith.
" 8. Pike	1	2 40	5	2 25	Jere Coble.
" 9. Wayne	8	2 35	10	2 25	Laz. R. Harding.

Number of men, 56; average salary per day, $2.44. Number of women, 62; average salary, $2 24.

——State Teachers' Association.—The next meeting of this body will convene at Indianapolis on the evening of December 30th, and continue in session during Wednesday and Thursday following. Papers will be presented upon the following themes:

1. Objects of School Discipline. A. M. Gow, Evansville.
2. Teaching the Natural Sciences in the Public Schools. Dr. W. B. Fletcher, Indianapolis.
3. Compulsory Education.
4. Relation of Psychology to the Art of Teaching. E. W. Thompson, Franklin, Ind.
5. Originality and Imitation in Teaching. R. M. Wright, Fort Wayne.
6. The number and kind of Subjects to be taught at the same time in Primary Schools. W. H. Wiley, Terre Haute.
7. History. Cyrus W. Hodgin, State Normal School.
8. Lesson with Children.
9. The Use of the Dictionary.
10. Lecture by President Edwards of the Normal University, Ill.

This constitutes the list of exercises, so far as completed, for the General Association.

The College and High School Section will hold its sessons on the afternoons of Wednesday and Thursday. There will also be a meeting of the County Superintendents' Section on each of these days.

——Terre Haute.—Salaries of Teachers elected for the school year commencing September 1. 1873:

MALES.

2	at	$1100	$2200
1	"	900	900
1	"	700	700
2	"	600	1200
6			$5,000

FEMALES.

5	at	$800	$4000
2	"	700	1400
1	"	650	650
4	"	600	2400
9	"	550	4950
11	"	500	5500
6	"	450	2700
9	"	400	3600
4	"	350	1400
51			$26.600

SPECIAL TEACHERS.

1 Music Teacher, (female)	$900
1 Drawing Teacher, teaches Saturdays, (male)	350

Average salary of male teachers, exclusive of Drawing Teacher, $900.

Average salary of female teachers, $528.

——Fort Wayne.—Salaries of teachers for school year 1873-74:

MALES.

1	at	$1600	$1600
1	"	1000	1000
2	"	800	1600
1	"	700	700
5			$4,900

FEMALES.

1	at	$1200	$1200
1	"	900	900
4	"	750	3000
1	"	600	600
1	"	550	550
4	"	500	2000
1	"	475	475
4	"	450	1800
2	"	420	840
14	"	400	5600
2	"	380	760
13	"	360	4680
48			$22,405

SPECIAL TEACHERS.

1 Music teacher (male)	$1000
1 Drawing Teacher (female)	1000
1 Teacher of Elocution (female)	1000
1 Teacher of Penmanship (male)	800
	$3,800

Average salary of male teachers, $957.
" " female " 488 .